THROUGH THE SOUTH.

EAST TENNESSEE.

INDUCEMENTS TO NORTHERN IMMIGRATION—SOIL, CLIMATE, PRODUCTS, SOCIETY, ETC.

[FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.]

KNOXVILLE, Tenn., July 24.—Looking northward from the summit of a high mountain in Western North Carolina, one day last week, I saw a large part of East Tennessee lying below me, and stretching away to the hazy, blue barrier of the Cumberland Mountains upon the far-off horizon. The country looked like a vast fertile plain, beautifully checkered with alternating fields and woodland, and watered by numerous streams. I thought I had never seen a fairer landscape, and after descending the mountain and traveling north by coach and rail for fifty miles along the valley of the French Broad River, and then west for about the same distance on ridges skirting the valley of the Holston, I found that the country made good all that it had promised in the bird's-eye view obtained from the mountain peak. It is not a level plain, however, as it appeared when seen from my rocky perch 4,000 feet above it, but is much broken by high ridges that run between the water-courses, and by gently sloping hills. The farms are well-fenced, more than half the land is clear of forest, and comparatively little has been entirely worn out and abandoned to sedge-grass, dwarf-pines and blackberry bushes. Less than half the dwellings are of logs, and handsome brick farm-houses, with vast yards in front and thrifty orchards in the rear, are not unusual sights. The rolling land, the numerous large streams, the dense foliage of the forests that crown the higher hills, and the lofty mountains upon the southern horizon, about whose peaks the white clouds sail like flocks of doves about a steeple, make the country delightfully picturesque. Indeed, there is scarce a house whose front door does not open upon a rural scene pretty enough for a picture.

I desire, however, to give the reader a more practical view of East Tennessee than a description of its landscape beauties would afford. It is a section which offers special inducements to that large class of people at the North who, ever since the war ended, have cherished an intention, or at least a desire, to emigrate southward in search of a more genial climate, either for greater pleasure in out-door life, or for recovery from diseases which the severe weather of the North is believed to aggravate. For the benefit of this class I have carefully gathered the following information respecting East Tennessee, which, I think, will be found trustworthy, or at least not open to the charge of overstatement. My own observation in a few days' travel does not, of course, count for much, but the sources from which these facts are obtained I believe to be trustworthy.

GENERAL FEATURES OF THE COUNTRY.

East Tennessee comprises two distinct regions—the Cumberland table land, and the broad valley stretching from the Cumberland Mountains on the north to that portion of the Allegheny system called the Unaker or Smoky Mountains, which form the North Carolina boundary, and form the Virginia line on the east, to the Cumberland table land on the west. The first section is a belt of country 50 miles in breadth, extending across the State from north-east to south-west. It is a lofty plateau, formed, as it were, by the flattening out of the Cumberland Mountains, and has an elevation of about 2,000 feet. It is intersected with mountain spurs and ranges, and is comparatively wild and sparsely settled. I have seen no portion of this plateau, and therefore shall not discuss its attractions to emigrants. I understand it is a fine grazing country, and enjoys a remarkably invigorating climate. The great valley of East Tennessee is 230 miles long and 110 wide, and has an average elevation of 1,300 feet. It is composed of a succession of small valleys, separated by steep hills or small mountain ridges, all having the general direction of the main valley—from north-east to south-west. These subordinate valleys are of various lengths, widths, and degrees of fertility. They are watered by clear, rapid streams, fed by countless springs in the hill-sides.

CLIMATE.

The people of East Tennessee claim for this section a climate unsurpassed by that of any other part of the United States, and as persons who have come here since the war from different parts of the North agree with the natives in this statement, the praise one hears of the climate may be taken as not exaggerated. The Summers are no warmer than those of Central New-York, the average temperature of the Summer months being 70°. The elevation of the country and the proximity of the mountain ranges give a cool, breezy atmosphere. The Winters are quite mild. What we would call in the North "October weather," lasts till Christmas, when the first snow usually falls. The average Winter temperature for a period of 16 years was 38°. Snow falls but seldom, and never remains on the ground longer than 48 hours. The weather is not rainy and disagreeable during most of the Winter, as in some parts of the South, but there are many fine clear days. It is said that during half of the time from the 1st of December till March the ground is dry enough and the air warm enough for plowing, much of which is done by the farmers during that period. Frosts seldom occur later than the first week in April. The early Springs and late Falls are especially advantageous to farmers. They have two or three months more time for out-door work than farmers have in the Northern States, and the cost of Wintering stock is much less—probably less than half the cost in the latitude of New-York and Pennsylvania. The climate is peculiarly healthful. The soil is dry and well drained; there are no swamps or bodies of stagnant water, and miasmatic diseases are unknown. The census shows that, next to the Pacific coast, the ratio of mortality is less in East Tennessee than in any other part of the country. Consumption is comparatively rare, and many persons affected with that disease, or with asthma or catarrh, have been relieved by a residence here.

SOIL.

The soil of East Tennessee may be described in general terms as a rich alluvial clay loam, resting upon limestone rock. The bottom lands, along the rivers and smaller streams, are the most fertile, and produce enormous crops, especially of corn, for which they seem best adapted. Of almost equal fertility are many of the upland farms, which have a chocolate-colored soil, easier to cultivate, and producing a greater variety of crops than the bottoms. Much of the upland has been worn out by shallow plowing and constant cropping, but there is no land that can so readily be restored to good condition. Northern men have, in many instances that I have heard of, bought worn-out land of this description for $10 an acre, and in two years made it worth $25, by plowing deep and sowing clover. Others have, by the use of lime or plaster, restored, in a single year, land abandoned by its former owners as exhausted. Most of the uplands have the reddish soil, but some have a white clay soil, suitable only for grass, which forms a firm sod, or for small grain. Besides the two classes of land named, there is a third, the ridge lands lying upon the slopes and summits of the ridges that intersect the country. They have a clay soil, and are usually heavily timbered with oak, black walnut, hickory, and pine. When cleared, their chief value is for pasturage. The country is so broken by these ridges, which separate the small valleys, that a large number of the farms comprise all three varieties of land—a strip of bottom land lying along a river or creek, a stretch of upland, and beyond that a wooded ridge.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

The Northern farmer who emigrates to East Tennessee has no new trade to learn, as he who goes further South into the cotton or rice country. The crops and mode of culture are the same as in New-York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, and the only difference in farming operations arises from the milder climate and longer time during the year for farm work. Corn and wheat are the staple crops. Along the river valleys I have seen as fine corn as I ever saw on the best prairie land in Illinois. These bottom lands often yield 100 bushels of shelled corn to the acre, and I am assured that 60 bushels is only an average crop. The uplands will average about 40 bushels. With the ignorant and careless system of cultivation that prevails among the native farmers, the wheat crop will not probably average more than 10 or 12 bushels to the acre. The Northern farmers who have bought land here, by using manure and plowing deeper, make it produce from 18 to 25 bushels. The proximity to the South, where the grasses do not flourish, makes hay a profitable crop. Timothy, herdsgrass and red clover thrive, and in some localities blue-grass grows wild. The excellent pasturage makes the raising of cattle, horses and mules for the Southern market a lucrative business, and there is no reason why dairy-farms should not be profitable, although I do not suppose there are a dozen in East Tennessee, the native farmers having heretofore had but one idea about farming, namely, to "make" all the hog and hominy possible. Oats, rye, barley and buckwheat do well. Potatoes yield from 100 to 200 bushels to the acre, of a quality a little inferior to Northern potatoes. Sometimes a larger yield is obtained. I saw last week a five-acre field on the top of Rich Mountain, just north of the Carolina line, lying at an elevation of perhaps 5,000 feet that produced last year 800 bushels to the acre. I notice flourishing fields of sweet potatoes which will yield, I am told, from 150 to 200 bushels per acre. All Northern fruits do well and are seldom endangered by late frosts. Little attention has been given to fruit culture, although the proximity of the Southern country where apples will not grow gives a ready market near at hand, where high prices always prevail. Peaches flourish, and in localities where the trees grow upon the high ridges, there is rarely a failure of the crop on account of frosts. The varieties of grapes that flourish along the Ohio River and in the lake country of Central New-York are grown here with equal success, especially the Concord and the Hartford Prolific. Strawberries are produced in perfection, and the wild blackberry rivals in size and flavor the best cultivated Lawtons that go to New-York market.

MARKETS AND TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES.

The South is the great market for nearly all the farm products of East Tennessee. All the great extent of country that lies south of the latitude of Atlanta depends upon Tennessee, Kentucky, and the States further North and West for its supplies of corn, wheat, fruit, pork, cattle, horses, mules, and hay. The cotton country would starve were it not for the food-producing region that lies north of it. The crops of this region do not, therefore, like those of Iowa and Illinois, have to be transported a great distance by rail and sea to find a market in New-York or Liverpool, but the consumers are comparatively close at hand in the cotton-fields of South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama. The only outlet to the South by rail is at present by way of Chattanooga; but two new roads are constructing, one running from Knoxville via Marysville to Walhalla, S. C., from whence there is now a direct railroad to Charleston, and the other from Morristown, 40 miles east of Knoxville, up the valley of the French Broad River, across North Carolina to Greenville, S. C., which is also in connection with Charleston by rail. Both these roads are intended to extend northward across the Cumberland Mountains to meet the roads in Kentucky that run to Cincinnati and Louisville, and the Knoxville Road is already running for a distance of about 40 miles north of that place, and 16 miles south. The other road, called the Cincinnati, Cumberland Gap and Charleston Railroad, is in operation for 39 miles, from Morristown to the Carolina line. The East Tennessee, Virginia and Georgia Railroad traverses the whole length of East Tennessee from the Virginia line to Chattanooga, and as the country is long and narrow in shape, no great part of it is at any considerable distance from the road. Many of the farmers who have not easy access to the railroads make use of the streams to get their crops to market. There are 21 rivers in East Tennessee which are navigable at some portions of the year, and the farmers living near their banks build rafts or flat-boats and, after the Winter rains, put their wheat, corn, and bacon on board and float down to Knoxville or Chattanooga, selling their crafts for lumber when they have disposed of the cargoes.

PRICE OF LANDS.

There are lands in East Tennessee for sale at all prices, from $1 an acre for wild mountain-sides to $100 for the choicest river bottoms. The average price of improved land will not, I should think, exceed from 40 to 50 per cent of the value of equally good land, equally near to railroads, in Ohio, Western New-York, or Western Pennsylvania. Twenty dollars an acre will buy excellent land near towns and railroads, with fair improvements in the way of buildings. Of course the farm-houses and barns in this section are, as a rule, inferior to those found in the North. Land that has been partially worn out, but can be readily recuperated, can be had for $10 an acre. The price of land will be better understood by the following examples of farms recently sold than by any generalizations. A farm of 200 acres of excellent land, four miles from Knoxville, one-half under cultivation, good brick house, fine springs, and stream of water—price, $8,000; a farm of the same size, of equally good land, 10 miles from Knoxville, with good frame house—price, $4,000; a farm of 200 acres, in a more isolated position, 15 miles from the railroad, with log house and barn, 75 acres cleared and remainder well timbered—price, $2,000; a tract of 1,200 acres first-class land, 400 cleared, 25 miles from railroad and three from steamer landing—price, $12 an acre; small farm of 40 acres, one mile from railroad, with log buildings—price, $600; tract of 1,600 acres, 400 in cultivation, 90 acres river bottom land on railroad now in progress—price, $10,000; farm of 144 acres, 80 in cultivation, good buildings and fences and fine fruit-trees, one mile from village and railroad—price, $3,000.

ARE MANY IMPROVED FARMS FOR SALE?

Yes. A purchaser can have his choice of a dozen or more in almost any county. There are two reasons for this. In the first place, the sensible opinion has rapidly gained ground among the farmers since the war that they are trying to cultivate too much land for profit, and many are anxious to divide their farms and sell a part; and, in the second place, there is a tide of emigration from here to Arkansas and Texas. The farmers hear accounts of the marvelous fertility of the corn lands of the South-West, and, having no fear of the chills and fever, for the reason that they never experienced the horrors of the disease, they see no reason why it would not be a good move to dispose of land which yields but 50 bushels of corn to the acre and buy land that produces 500. The emigrating instinct appears to be as strong in the South as at the North, and the movement westward into Missouri, Arkansas, and Texas from the Southern States this side of the Mississippi almost keeps pace with the tide of emigration from the North that is filling up Nebraska, Kansas, and Colorado, and if the Germans which the North gets were left out of the account, the South would be found to keep abreast in the race of westward progress.

An immense field of semi-bituminous coal begins near Cumberland Gap and follows the Cumberland range across the State to Alabama. This coal is now mined to a limited extent, and is said to be equal to Pittsburgh coal. An abundance of iron ore is found in the same region, and also further to the east. There are beds of marble of fine quality, and mines of copper and zinc. The mineral resources of East Tennessee have thus far attracted but little attention, from want of capital to develop them. They will be in future sources of great wealth.

EXTENT OF NORTHERN IMMIGRATION.

There has been no organized movement to colonize East Tennessee with Northern immigration, but a small, steady stream of immigration has been trickling in for three or four years past. Where one man comes and does well, his relatives and friends are apt to follow him and settle in the same neighborhood, as the following example shows: In 1868, a gentleman came to Knox County from Central New-York, in such poor health that he could not get up stairs without assistance. He bought 100 acres of good wild ridge land, heavily timbered, six miles from Knoxville, for which he paid $1,200. The first year he had 40 acres cleared, and sold lumber enough to pay for the clearing and build a comfortable house. Next year he set out 2,000 peach trees, which, when they come to bear, he thinks, will support him the rest of his life. He has entirely recovered his health. He was followed, in 1869 and 1870, by two brothers-in-law and two friends from the same county in New-York, who all bought farms close at hand, making a pleasant little New-York settlement. All are doing well. One bought a worn-out farm for $15 an acre, reclaimed it with clover, and has just sold it for $1,000 advance on what he paid, and bought another to redeem in like manner.

SCHOOLS.

There is no State Common School system in Tennessee. When the State was first reconstructed, the Massachusetts system was adopted by the Republican Legislature, but it was too long a step to take at once, and did not meet with popular favor. When the Democrats came into power they made haste to repeal it, and last Winter a law was passed providing that the County Court in each county should either levy a school tax or submit the question to the people whether they would have public schools or not. In most counties no schools are now maintained, and the people are indifferent upon the subject. The influence of a few energetic Northern men in any county would, however, in a short time awaken an interest in education sufficient to put the schools in operation.

The most important information to a Northern man wishing to move South is, after all, about the disposition of the people among whom he proposes to settle, for however rich the soil and healthful the climate may be, no sensible man will set up his household gods in a community where he will be ostracised, abused, and sneered at as "a d—d Yankee" on account of his Northern birth and advanced political opinions, and where ruffians in hideous disguises prowl about at midnight and flog and shoot men for voting a Republican ticket. East Tennessee is happily free, in spirit and in deed, from Ku-Kluxism. Here, as in no other part of the South except Western North Carolina, there is an active Republican party composed of intelligent native white men. And this party is in the majority, electing county officers in most of the counties, and sending two Republican Congressmen to Washington. The Republican who emigrates here from the North finds himself, therefore, among political friends, and can at once, if he chooses, take as active a part in politics as he could if he went to Nebraska or Kansas, without having his business injured or his social relations rendered unpleasant. There are, of course, many men who took sides with the South during the war, but they have no monopoly of the intelligence or property of the community, and do not give tone to society. It should be understood, however, that neither in the towns or the country is the society, as a rule, as good as at the North—that is, there are fewer people of education and refinement, more ignorant persons, and much less interest in education, advanced ideas, and all intellectual topics. The people are, however, kind, sociable, hospitable, and helpful to each other; and they cordially welcome new comers. In nine-tenths of all East Tennessee a Northern man coming to settle in the country would be much more warmly received than one from the South. The people suffered so much from their loyalty in the war that they naturally do not feel kindly yet toward their late persecutors, the Rebels.

ENGLISH MARKSMEN.

THE NATIONAL RIFLE ASSOCIATION—ANNUAL MEETING OF VOLUNTEERS AT WIMBLEDON—DESCRIPTION OF THE CAMP—REMARKABLE TARGET FIRING.

WIMBLEDON, July 14.—In a picturesque part of Surrey, one of the most lovely of all English shires, and surrounded by exquisite scenery, within ten miles of the huge metropolis, to be seen dimly through its funeral pall of thick black smoke, lies the small village of Wimbledon, which, year by year, in the month of July, draws together, under the auspices of the National Rifle Association of England, a resident population larger than that of many an English town. The wonderful community, which springs into life here, organizes and governs itself, and then disappears as if it had never been, has just brought its annual meeting to a close. About ten years ago, when the volunteer movement in England was in its infancy, it became a question with the originators of that movement how the interests of the force could be best secured, and in what way permanence might be given to its institutions, and it was thought that, if a friendly rivalry could be brought about, such as exists among the skilled marksmen of the different cantons of Switzerland, much might be done toward solving this problem. A meeting of noblemen and others interested in the movement took place, and they there and then formed themselves into an association called the National Rifle Association of England, founded, as its constitution sets forth, "to give permanence to volunteer corps, and to encourage rifle shooting throughout the Queen's dominions."

The first gathering took place in July, 1860, upon the Common of Wimbledon, on which occasion the Queen herself, in firing the opening shot, inaugurated a series of meetings which are now viewed with the strongest possible interest by all classes of Englishmen, and which have at last become so immensely popular with the volunteer force generally, as to require the most careful calculation and management to provide for the large masses of people who are annually drawn together by these contests. The management of these meetings generally, and the government of the camp itself, and vested in a Council elected from the members of the Association themselves. Upon this Council, of which Earl Spencer (a volunteer, of course) is President, devolves the routine administration of every matter connected with the inner life of the camp; the arrangement of the details in accordance with the varying items of each day's programme; the determining of disputes which are constantly arising between the several competitors upon points connected with the shooting, and requiring great nicety and discretion in their adjustment, and the general receipt and disbursement of the funds of the Association. The War Office in no way interferes with the general arrangements of the Council, except to appoint its own officers, to whom is intrusted the duty of reporting to the Government at the end of each meeting any matters that may seem to come within its immediate cognizance. Officers of the regular army occupy the positions of Camp Commandant, Camp Adjutant, and Commanding Royal Engineer, but in every other respect the Executives are selected from officers of the volunteer forces, who carry out the orders of the Council, given through the Camp Commandant. These matters may, to the uninitiated, seem of very little importance, but in reality they are of the greatest possible consequence. Only those who have governed bodies of undisciplined volunteers in the field know how to appreciate the immense difficulties which beset a commanding officer when, for the first time in his life, he finds himself at the head of such troops. The volunteers who come into camp at Wimbledon are drawn from every class and rank of society—from the very highest and from the very lowest. As an instance of the former might be mentioned the regiment of Civil Service Volunteers, recruited from the gentlemen from the civil service only, and perhaps the Oxford University Volunteers, and as instances of the latter might be mentioned the Tower Hamlets Artillery, recruited from the worst districts of the vile regions about the docks. The gentlemen are very tenacious of their dignity, and somewhat inclined to call in question the acts of their officers; the workingmen are not less so, but are more disposed to run riot for the sake of the holiday.

Five thousand regulars and volunteers were brought together in camp for the first time in their lives on Saturday, the 8th of July, and on the Monday following the camp was in working order, and the most rigid military discipline prevailed. On the 22d inst., the camp will cease to be. Within that period everything is carried on under most strict military discipline. No amusements whatever are permitted in camp after 8 o'clock in the evening, and all dances, pic-nics, and fireworks are absolutely prohibited. "Lights out" sounds at 9:45, and at 10 every one in camp is expected to be in his tent and quiet. At daybreak the gun fires, and at 5 o'clock the bugle sounds the reveille. At 8:30 parade is called, and at 8:45 the different squads are marched off to the firing point. Firing commences each day punctually at 9. At 12 dinner commences, at 1 firing commences again and continues until 6. "Tattoo" beats last post at 9:30. The camp in itself seems perfect. On entering to the left, about three-quarters of a mile from the volunteer camp, is the camp of the guards, who are told off for duty as markers at the butts and for other purposes connected with the shooting. Starting from that point the firing points of the 1,000 yards range, two in number, are reached. Then a little further on there are, at equal distances from each other, five ranges at 600 yards; then another 1,000 yards' range again, two more ranges at 600 yards, two at 1,000, one at 800 yards, and three more at 500, 600, and 500 yards respectively, and two at 200 yards, and one range for practicing shooting at the "running deer" at 120 yards. From the Guards' tents to those of the volunteers a tramway is laid down, the cars upon which are horsed, and generally attended to by the Military Train. At the end of the tramway are the military officers' camp; the large county tent for members of provincial associations to meet in; a large bell-shaped tent for lady visitors; the telegraph offices; the post-offices; the Council tent, where the Council sit *en permanence* during the meeting; the refreshment booth—an immense establishment for so small a space, and admirably managed; the exhibition tent for the prizes. A little further on is the clock tower, an exceedingly pretty structure, the gift of Mr. Benson, the great watchmaker of Cheapside. Then, a few yards on, is the residence of Earl Spencer, the President of the association; alongside of it are the tents of the Staff, the Royal Engineer store shed, and, not far off, the excellent lavatories.

Turning away to the right, the snow white tents of the volunteers are found, ranged in "camps" according to regiments. Here is Love-lane leading to the camp of the Artillery Company of London, the first volunteer corps of the United Kingdom, which takes precedence even of the militia. This company is a relic of the old train bands which marched to raise the siege of Gloucester, and is the only one which carried the Queen's colors. The camp of this company may be known by the big bear-skin caps poised on sticks in front of the tents. It has not seen any fighting, but in equipments, in drill, and in soldierly appearance, it is the finest looking body of volunteers in the world. The "Company" consists of a field battery of artillery, a troop of cavalry, and a regiment of infantry. The artillery and cavalry are admirably horsed and equipped in every respect. Their uniform is blue and silver laces; that of the infantry is scarlet and silver laces. The band of the regiment consists of 60 pieces, and is conducted by an eminent band-master. Every member of the regiment finds his own uniform and accouterments, which are of the most costly description. The bear-skin cap alone costs $40 in gold, and the "busby" of the cavalry costs much more. The ornaments on the accouterments are of gold, and the lace on the tunics and pantaloons are of silver. An officer's uniform in the cavalry troop costs certainly not a fraction less than $750 in gold, that is in England, it must be remembered, where things are cheap. A trooper's uniform probably costs $150, gold. The men are well set up—well-drilled and well-officered. The officers know their duty and do it. This regiment has barracks of its own, an officers' mess room, and a capital armory. Its ranks are recruited from the merchants and tradesmen of the city of London. The Prince of Wales is Captain-General of the Company.

Passing on through the camp of the artillery company, the regimental camps are reached, where uniforms of every volunteer corps in the United Kingdom may be seen—the dark green tunic and scarlet facings of the famous "Robin Hoods" of Nottingham, the scarlet and green of the Staffordshire Volunteers, the silver gray of the Cambridge, the black of the Devonshire, the clay color of the Somersetshire, the iron gray of Trelawney's famous Cornishmen, the kilts of the Highlanders from Scotland, and, indeed, many others too numerous to mention. Sharp round to the left is the camp of the St. George's Rifle Volunteers, the uniform of jet black. The white silk banner, with the red cross of St. George of England, flies over-head. A little further on is Glen Albyn, leading to the camp of the London Scottish, who are very exclusive and clannish, but very hospitable. The lion rampant of Scotland is their badge on the color flying over-head. There are great pots of thistles and a magnificent display of deer's antlers over the officers' mess-tent. Exactly at the left is Victoria Crescent and the camp of the Victoria Volunteers; their uniform is dark green, with black facings. These volunteers are famous for their Garibaldian field furnaces and excellent cookery. Further on still may be seen the dark green and scarlet uniforms in the camp of the First Surrey Volunteers. Round to the right is the camp of the Civil Service Rifles, whose uniform is iron gray, with naval blue facings. Further on are the Oxford and Cambridge University Corps, Oxford having light gray blouses and similarly colored knickerbockers, with dark blue stockings, and Cambridge silver gray, with light scarlet stockings. Very pretty and tastily laid out are the different regimental camps. The tents are generally pitched so as to form three sides of a square, the mess-tent of the regiment being in the center by the flagstaff. Much *esprit de corps* exists in rendering the different camps as attractive as possible, and many and varied are the means adopted to secure this end. Gay flowers meet the eye in every direction, and many colored flags flutter in the breeze. Each succeeding evening during the meeting regimental bands play until 8 o'clock, and officers entertain their friends in the mess-tents. The members in camp have a large tent, called a "club-tent," where all the daily papers are to be seen, and the association itself issues a daily paper called *The Earwig*, printed in camp and containing contributions from volunteers. The Queen's Prize is this year of the total aggregate value of $7,075, gold, which, however, is simply one item in the list of prizes. Probably the value of the whole prizes given away would amount to—including challenge prizes—$100,000, gold. As an instance of the accuracy with which some competitors shoot for the Queen's Prizes, it may be mentioned that a Scotchman once walked up to the range, at 600 yards, and made seven consecutive bull's-eyes; passing to that at 800 yards, he took two trial shots and scored two more bull's-eyes; apparently satisfied with the result of his preliminary shooting, he tried seven more shots at the 800 yards range, and scored seven more consecutive bull's-eyes. Thus, a total of sixteen bull's-eyes was made in as many shots. Pretty good shooting one would think, but the Scotchman was afraid of being "tied" by a brother competitor!

THE COLORADO COLONISTS.

THE NEW DEPARTURE IN AMERICAN FARMING—THE CONDITIONS OF SUCCESS—A YEAR'S EXPERIENCE OF IRRIGATION—THE WHEAT AND OTHER CROPS AT GREELEY.

GREELEY, Col., July 12.—It seems now tolerably certain that farming in Colorado, by means of irrigation, is to become a scientific pursuit. The failures in irrigation in the East may, I judge, be principally ascribed to two reasons—one being an irregular, a deficient, or an excessive supply of moisture, and the other, coldness and general backwardness of many of the seasons, so that, notwithstanding the correctness of theories, the adverse natural conditions mar the expected results. Here what the farmer proposes to do on a certain day he can perform; and all the plans for the year may be laid down months in advance, and carried out with scarce a variation. Not a day, or even an hour, need be lost by reason of stormy weather, and, through a perfected system of irrigation, a crop may be sown at any hour previously determined upon, even years before.

However, we find that many details are to be established, and only familiarity with the system will enable us to decide what they shall be. It is perhaps singular that, while irrigation has been practiced many thousand years, and over a large portion of the earth—in Egypt, Italy, India, and China—no definite information in regard to it is to be found in any literary work. We have no scientific investigations as to the general and particular effects of water; no rules and no principles as to running lines of canals; the nature or power of water in large or small volumes or heads; in short, we are almost as wholly without guide as were the people of the first ages of the world. It is likely, however, that much of the information we need was formerly possessed by the Egyptians, but, as the art of printing was unknown, it has been lost, along with much else which made that country the granary of the world, and enabled it for hundreds of years to supply the City of Rome with bread.

We get some valuable information from the Colorado ranchmen, particularly when we employ them and watch the method of their operations. Despite the disadvantages in respect to capital and experience with which they contend, their success has been wonderful, and farmers from the East are astonished on beholding the immense stacks of grain produced on comparatively small pieces of ground. It must be granted that we, ourselves, have as yet but imperfect knowledge, and that we have not even realized the importance of a few leading principles or maxims, but, having commenced on a large scale the construction of irrigating canals the most extensive in America, we shall, of necessity, be obliged to come to a clear understanding of whatever relates to the subject.

To my mind the first idea to be impressed is, that the farmer is to assume an entirely different relation to crops in the ground from that of the Eastern farmer; that is, he must become a species of special providence, and watch and care for vegetation and grain from the time it is committed to the ground until it is gathered, nor relax a single day in his supervision. This does not mean that he shall constantly bestow his labor, but that he shall continually keep watch, observing the effects of previous labor and judging when further labor shall be required. The work of a farmer here, then, consists, to a great extent, in observation and investigation, while the actual manual work bestowed is comparatively trifling. Hence it is that farming rises to a science, and the thinking and the observing man is destined to be a successful one. It is quite likely that the reason why so little information is to be obtained from Oriental countries on irrigation, is because the laborer is a slave, or of low caste, incapable both of thinking and of imparting information. I know that the British and French have published elaborate works, but these, mainly, are by engineers, who know little or nothing of the actual cultivation of the soil.

Our farmers here are successful this year in the degree that they have measured and gauged the nature of the soil, and their own capabilities. Some failures have occurred and may be attributed to two definite causes: one, because too much was undertaken, and one because constant and intelligent observation was neglected. I know of three pieces of wheat which I will name by numbers. The five acres which I will call No. 1, were sown early, the ground was plowed moderately deep, the grain came up well, and was promising; but it was absolutely neglected; though water ran over a small portion by accident, on one occasion. And notwithstanding water was in abundance, and the land could and can be flooded without the least difficulty, all except the small portion, is to-day as brown and desolate as a desert of sand. The field containing 5 acres which I will term No 2, was sowed about the same time, it was plowed well, came up well, was watered early, and it gave promise of a full crop. But about ten days ago, when the owner should be on hand, he was attending to other or no business, and it was only in the latter part of last week that he applied water. As a consequence the yield will be deficient; still, if fair attention is given, it will do tolerably well. The field No. 3, was sown after the other pieces had become green, and doubts were felt if it would do as well. However the grain came up well, and when it began to shade the ground, water was applied, but not in great quantity. In about 10 days water was applied again. The time expended was about two hours a day, one hour in the morning and one in the evening, the water being let to run during the intervening hours, and the whole time of watering was about four days. The hours mentioned as spent were, for the most part, devoted to watching the water, only a short time being employed in directing it. Ten days after it was watered for the last time. This grain is now first-rate; it stands nearly three feet high, is all headed out evenly, and the yield must be good.

It may be out of order, still it may please some old friends if it is stated that this test piece belongs to your correspondent, who is out to look at it the first thing in the morning, for it is close to the house. Although this is a small piece of grain, it is, in fact, equal to 20 acres of average grain through the United States, and it may be added, if it is to the purpose, it is close to a town of nearly 2,000 inhabitants—a town which, a little over a year ago, had no existence.

As regards quality, no country of which I have knowledge produces wheat equal to that grown here. A gentleman who, I judge, has paid special attention to wheat, has examined some of our best fields, and he states that the average number of kernels to a head is 36. The number in the States does not exceed 30, while those varieties usually sown, because sure, give from 18 to 25. The heads of a whole crop having above 40 kernels are, he says, rare in every country. Almost all our wheat is this year on sod ground. A few pieces on ground plowed last year are far the best; hence, when we fairly get to work growing wheat on subdued land, I really believe we shall excel the world. I know good wheat is raised in California; but as they depend wholly upon rain, and as they have a series, or a cycle, of dry years, their average of production must be low. Here we ask nothing of the rain, except that in February or March it cause our grain to germinate, and this it always does.

Agricultural knowledge certainly makes progress. So far as I have been able to learn from cords of books of travels, Colorado is the only country in the world in which rain is so deficient during May, June, and July that wheat must be grown and ripened by irrigation. After wheat is well above ground I prefer irrigation to rain, and with a good head of water I can beat the products procured by the most favorable rain that ever fell. It is true I cannot go over as much ground, but I can do the work more thoroughly, and pour the water into thirsty places in a manner that rain always fails to do. When a farmer depends on rain alone for wheat-growing he contends with some serious difficulties. Coming broadcast and falling from a great hight, the rain makes the ground hard, and it pounds or lodges the grain; it often comes in such vast quantities that a good part of it runs off, digging out gutters, and doing little good, while it spreads over a whole district, and among briars and weeds as much as on fields. More than this, it seldom comes exactly at the right time. On the contrary, with a good head of water I can pour into a field of grain or a garden just as much water as is needed, and it comes in slowly, quietly, and peaceably, and yet thoroughly, seeking out all the fine rootlets of plants, and, beside, coming from the lofty mountains, it bears elements of fertility from wasting rocks, from forests and crumbling banks, such as rain never brings.

We are experimenting in various crops, such as broom corn, sorgo and sugar beets, all of which are doing well. Potatoes were planted largely, and in season, from garden patches up to five and ten-acre pieces; they have grown rapidly, and the earliest have appeared in market, selling so high that I do not choose to state the figure, but it is considerably above five cents a pound, while old ones in good order are sold at 2½ cents. It seems to me that the average yield cannot be less than 150 bushels to the acre, while some pieces may reach 300 bushels. The potato bug has done but little damage, for so soon as it appeared Paris green was applied.

The Rev. Henry Wilson of Indiana has been preaching and marrying with such success throughout the West that he secured many converts and seven wives, all of whom are living and have equal claim on the clerical Don Giovanni. Wilson is now in jail in Shelby County, and the authorities are delaying his trial to see how many more Mrs. Wilsons may yet make their appearance.

THE OYSTER TRADE.

THE ANCIENTS ON OYSTERS—FAMOUS OYSTER BEDS OF ANTIQUITY—AMERICAN, THE BEST IN THE WORLD—LEADING VARIETIES—PROBABLE EXTINCTION—HOW GROWN—EXTENT OF BUSINESS.

NORFOLK, Va., July 28.—"The poor Britons—there is some good in them after all—they produce an oyster." So said old Sallust, just twenty centuries, less eighty years, ago. Pliny, who died in the year 29 A. D., bears testimony to the excellence of the ancient oysters when he says, that "for this long time past the palm has been awarded to them at our tables as a most exquisite dish." This Agassiz of the ancients hazards the opinion that, "Oysters are of various colors; in Spain they are red, in Illyricum of a tawny hue, and at Circeii black, both in meat and shell." He further observes: "Oysters are all the better for traveling and being removed to new waters; thus, for example, the oysters of Brundisium, it is thought, when fed in the waters of Avernus, both retain their own native juices and acquire the flavor of those of Lake Lucrinus."

The classical old fellow was right. The Tangier Sound and York River oysters, when transplanted to the waters of New-York, become plumper and of richer and rarer flavor. And we know that Sergius Orata, the first Roman who ever cultivated artificially these marine mollusks, acquired a great reputation, and made a great deal of money out of his Lucrine oysters and the artificial beds which he planted in the Bay of Baiæ, that bay below Naples about which Horace raves, and with reason, for to us it seems the most beautiful little bay in the world. Passing by what Juvenal and Horace are inspired to sing by these delicious bivalves, permit one more classical quotation from Mucianus:

"The oysters of Cyzicus are larger
Than those of Lake Lucrinus, fresher
Than those of the British Coasts, sweeter
Than those of Medulæ, more tasteful
Than those of Ephesus, more plump
Than those of Lucus, less slimy
Than those of Coryphas, more delicate
Than those of Istria, and whiter
Than those of Circeii."

This Cyzicus was on the coast of Asia Minor, 100 miles north-east of ancient Troy, and the same distance south-west of modern Constantinople. Its oysters were undoubtedly good, but those of Lake Lucrine, south of Naples, and of Circeii, south of Civita Vecchia, subsequently became more famous.

Westward the course of the oyster takes its way. From the oldest of the five grand divisions of the earth to the newest—from Asia Minor to Greece (Coryphas), from Greece to the Roman Peninsula, thence to France (Medulæ or Medoc), to Spain (Lucus), to the British and Irish coasts, and thence to America—the blessed army of oysters seem to have come. Now, a single American bay yields more than the whole of the Mediterranean Sea. It is a satisfaction to all who are unwilling to exalt everything foreign and ancient over everything domestic and modern, to know that neither Mæcenas nor Lucullus, neither Virgil nor Ovid, neither the Roman Emperors nor the French Kings, nor the Four Georges, nor Shakespeare, Bacon, Burke, or Canning ever had before them an oyster to be compared in prodigious size and delicious flavor with the American oysters of Chesapeake Bay. To adapt and adopt the language of another, doubtless God could have made a better bivalve, but doubtless God never did.

First, as to the leading varieties. The deservedly famous Cherry-stone Inlet oyster must be ranked first among all the oysters of the world. It is a large, fat white oyster of exquisite salty, oyster flavor. It is thick, and of firm, solid substance, so that it may be sliced when steamed, like a veal cutlet or breast of turkey. Fifteen years ago the Cherry-stones were abundant. Now, the genuine Cherry-stone oyster is almost as extinct as the Dodo. Less than a hundred bushels were "caught" and sent to the market last year. The next most delicate oysters are those from Lynn Haven Bay. They are more plentiful than the Cherry-stones, but the present supply is small. Only a thousand bushels of natural Lynn Havens were "caught" last season. Twelve years ago the supply was abundant. Perpetual dredging has destroyed the young oysters and exhausted the beds. The genuine Lynn Haven is so large that a single oyster will cover the bottom of an ordinary sized soup plate. The largest cannot be swallowed without being divided into three or four bites. Next to these must be ranked the Hampton Bay oyster. These are large, sound, single, muddy-shelled, firm, salty, and solid. As the Eastern shoremen say, "they are as big as your foot," and in the shell have been known to measure sixteen inches in length and three in thickness. The supply is very abundant at present, and seems inexhaustible. This is chiefly because no dredging is allowed over the beds by reason of the shallowness of the water.

The oyster laws prohibit dredging in water of less than two fathoms or twelve feet. Thousands of bushels are taken each season with the oyster tongs. Next in size and flavor are the York River oysters. Those produced from natural beds have become scarce, but the product of the artificial beds is very large. Both kinds are rated high in the market. The boundaries of the innumerable planted beds are marked by saplings or poles, which give the mouth of the river and the bay for miles around the appearance of one vast orchard. Lastly, the Tangier Sound oysters are the most numerous, but are smaller and inferior in quality to all those we have named. They have deteriorated in quality during the last ten years, owing, doubtless, to the constant dragging of the dredges over the beds. This Sound produces more oysters than all of Chesapeake Bay beside, and more than any waters of like area in the world. The larger proportion of the oysters used in all except the extreme eastern cities of the United States are the Tangier Sounds.

The best oysters go to the Baltimore and Washington markets; few find their way to New-York, for these reasons: The best and largest are caught in small quantities with the tongs. These tong fishermen, being chiefly poor Marylanders and Virginians, are personally known to the Baltimore and Washington dealers, who contract for their oysters before they are caught, and these fishers on a small scale are more disposed to sell to their neighbors, whom they know and from whom they get goods and supplies, than to strangers. And so also, the local owners of small vessels are more inclined to take their cargoes to cities where the merchants from whom they expect to purchase return cargoes are known to them, than to go to ports like New-York and Boston, where they have to deal with entire strangers. The "Yankee oystermen," as those who come from the North to fish are called, not knowing well the waters or the location of the best beds, fish wherever they can catch anything, and so get a miscellaneous cargo.

There are now in existence 60 species of oysters, and 200 fossiliferous species have been found. It is believed by the best informed that the delicious oysters of Chesapeake Bay will in time become extinct, and its almost innumerable beds exhausted, unless something is done for their protection from wholesale destruction. The supply from the bay is on the decrease, although the general annual consumption is manifestly on the increase. It is thought that in forty or fifty years, if the uninterrupted dredging of the oyster beds is continued, they will be practically exhausted. When a new bed is found, it is the habit to drag the heavy dredges through it year after year, until there are no oysters left to breed. The machine crushes the young oysters, imbeds them in the mud, or scatters them beyond the reach of nourishment, and into water too deep for them to thrive in. The remedy is, to so amend the oyster laws as to allow dredging in each particular sound, inlet, or haven, only on alternate years. That is, make it unlawful to fish in the same beds every year, with a dredge; and require that they shall be undisturbed every other season, or at least every third season. Oysters require from four to six years to reach maturity from the spawn or spat, or from three to five years after being planted. They should be disturbed as little as possible not only during the period of breeding, which runs through the months of May, June, July, and August, but during the entire period of growth. They flourish best in the temperate zones, in water from 4 to 14 feet deep, but are found in water from 1 to 30 feet in depth. The fecundity of the oyster is remarkable; one is believed to breed a million. The spat, or spawn, floats in the water, and is soon protected by a calcareous shell, which is formed and attached to rocks, hulks of vessels, old boots, bottles, lost anchors, or any hard substance whatever. Mr. Harvey of Washington says that he recently saw an old ship anchor raised, which had two bushels and a half of fine oysters attached to it. Oysters grow best at the mouths of rivers and inlets where there is a mingling of salt and fresh waters. They feed on animalculæ and minute particles of vegetable matter, and certainly derive some nourishment from the salt brine of the sea. They do not develop as well where there are no tides or currents, that is, where the water is deep or motionless, nor, on the other hand, where the currents are too swift. They grow largest where the sea-bottom is moderately firm and solid, not where the mud is deep or the bottom hard and stony. Oysters sometimes form beds which rise to the surface, obstruct navigation, and change tidal currents. Three or four layers are found on the top of each other, and live and dead oysters, shells and sand rise like coral reefs to the thickness of ten or more feet; vessels are sometimes stranded on them. The "oyster bars" of the Potomac cause ripples where there is water 20 feet deep within a hundred yards.

Concerning the quantity and value of the annual oyster product of Chesapeake Bay, and the number of men and vessels engaged in the trade, no accurate statistics can be obtained. Of the amount shipped or the quantity consumed on the Eastern Shore, nothing trustworthy is known. The laws of Maryland and Virginia, if revised, might render it possible to ascertain the number of men, vessels, porgies, skiffs and other craft employed in the business. The books of our various custom houses should show the number of bushels entered from this locality, but the published figures are full of irreconcilable contradictions. The Agricultural Report of one year proves the worthlessness of the oyster statistics published the year before. The encyclopedias contain only a condensation of all the floating contradictions and blunders. The American Encyclopedia errs so grossly as to say that oysters are as good to eat during the spawning season as at any other time. An approximate estimate of the extent of this important trade, from facts gathered, is this: During the five years of the war there were received at the wharves of Washington half a million of bushels of oysters annually. One famous establishment consumed 1,000 bushels per day during the season, or a quarter of a million per annum. The importation and consumption of last year was just one-half that of war times. Baltimore, the greatest oyster market in the world, consumed, canned, and reshipped last season (1870-71) 2,000,000 of bushels. The oyster yield of Chesapeake Bay, for the year just closed, did not fall below 14,000,000 bushels, worth $16,000,000 before shipment. The number of men engaged in the business may be put down at 8,000.

ROWDIES' RECORD.

JOE COBURN ATTACKS A GAMBLER—RANDOM FIRING—TWO MEN SHOT.

Joe Coburn, the notorious prize-fighter, who is matched to fight James Mace near New-Orleans, accompanied by a number of ruffians, entered the oyster saloon of Stephen Platt at No. 211 Bowery, at 2½ a. m. yesterday and met George McCloud, proprietor of a gambling saloon at Bowery and Grand-st. All were under the influence of liquor, and Coburn was very loud and abusive in his conversation. McCloud, who favors Mace, began an argument with him on the approaching prize-fight. Coburn struck McCloud, who drew a revolver and fired several shots, when the weapon was seized by Coburn. In the struggle for its possession, the weapon was again discharged, the ball striking Coburn on the left temple, and causing a severe flesh wound. John Clark, age 22, of No. 210 Bowery, who was in front of the saloon, was shot seriously in the left thigh by one of the bullets fired at Coburn by McCloud. Hearing the firing, Officer Long entered the saloon, and took the assailants into custody, and assisted by other officers, conducted them to the Eldridge-st. Police Station. In the station-house they were disorderly, and Henry Stewart, one of Coburn's friends attacked Officer Long, but was promptly seized by a sergeant, thrown down the stairway leading to the cells, and locked up. Complaints for disorderly conduct were made against Coburn and McCloud, and they were also locked up. The former is a native of Ireland, age 30, and keeps a saloon. McCloud said that he was a native of the United States, age 37, and an agent by occupation. Coburn's wound was dressed and pronounced not dangerous. Clark, meanwhile, had been removed by his friends to the Spring-st. station, where his wound was dressed. He was subsequently taken to Bellevue Hospital.

Coburn, McCloud, and Stewart were taken before Justice Scott, at the Essex Market Police Court, and on the complaint of Officer Long, were committed to await an examination. They were visited in their cells by a number of Tammany politicians. McCloud was formerly a member of the Metropolitan Police Force, and attached to the Thirteenth Precinct in the capacity of Ward Detective. He was dismissed for misconduct, and has since kept a gaming-house in the Bowery. Later in the day, the accused were released by the magistrate on $1,000 bail each.

ASSAULT WITH AN OYSTER-KNIFE.

Robert Reed, a native and resident of Massachusetts, soon after 4 a. m. yesterday, while in the oyster saloon of Peter Van Glahn, at No. 93 Bowery, quarreled with Wm. Miller, a bar-tender, and Minnie Taylor. He was stabbed in the shoulder by Miller with a large oyster-knife, and received a severe wound. The assailants were committed yesterday by Justice Scott to await trial.

A DOMESTIC QUARREL.

John Dougherty, a laborer, residing at No. 435 West Thirty-ninth-st., called at the West Thirty-seventh-st. Police Station early yesterday, while bleeding from wounds on the left side of the neck and left ear. He said that his wife had stabbed him during a quarrel. His wounds were dressed, and he went home, refusing to have his wife arrested.

A MYSTERIOUS WOUND.

Michael Corcoran, age 21, of No. 36 Mulberry-st., was found on the street, early yesterday, by the Sixth Precinct Police, bleeding from a wound five inches in length, on the left shoulder, apparently inflicted with a large clasp-knife. He refused to tell how or by whom he was hurt. He was taken to the Park Hospital.

AN AGED ASSAILANT.

Margaret Dolan, age 70, quarreled with Ann Murphy, a fellow-tenant, at No. 18 Roosevelt-st., yesterday, and struck her three times on the head with a hatchet, causing severe wounds. Justice Hogan committed her to the Tombs to await a trial.

A REPORTER ATTACKED.

David David, a newspaper reporter, while passing No. 50 Bowery, early yesterday, was assaulted by a gang of ruffians, and robbed of a watch, gold chain and locket, and $14 in currency. He alleges that he drew his pistol, and fired at the gang, who ran away with the plunder. No arrests.

THE PUBLIC HEALTH.

COMPARATIVE DECREASE OF MORTALITY IN THE CITY—A SLIGHT INCREASE OF SMALL-POX.

The Board of Health ordered, yesterday, that the reports relative to the occupancy of cellars and basements for habitations and lodgings be referred to the Sanitary Committee for investigation. Henry Bergh, President of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, asked that he and his Superintendent be appointed Assistant Health Inspectors, without pay. The application was referred to the Committee on Law and Ordinances. City Sanitary Inspector Morris submitted the following comparative statement of contagious diseases for the two weeks ending July 29:

	Fevers.						
Week ending	Typhus.	Typhoid.	Relapsing.	Scarlet.	Small-pox.	Measles.	Diphtheria.
July 22......	1	9	0	40	23	7	6
July 29......	3	14	2	46	21	8	3

Dr. Russell, Registrar of Records, reported 581 deaths for the past week, being a decrease of 73 from the previous week, and 399 less than the corresponding period of 1870. Zymotic diseases occasioned 256 deaths; constitutional, 145; local, 131; developmental, 25, and violent causes, 24. The fatal cases of small-pox, which in the three preceding weeks had diminished from 30 to 10, increased during the past week to 16. There were two deaths from measles and nine from scarlatina, being a decrease of four and nine respectively. Six deaths were ascribed to typhoid fever. None have been caused by typhus since July 8. The mortality from diarrheal affections fell from 261 to 192. One death was produced by sunstroke. Bright's disease caused 20 deaths, an increase of 10. Two additional deaths were due to wounds received in the riot, making an aggregate of 52 during the past four weeks; the decrease of mortality from the same period of 1870 was 617.

The following were the principal meteorological observations recorded for the Department at the Cooper Union during the past week: Mean reading of barometer, 29.938 inches; maximum temperature in shade, 79°; in sun, 114.4°; minimum temperature, 60°; mean temperature, 69.6°, being 7.32° less than for the corresponding period during ten years. Mean degree of humidity, 63.37.

In the week ending July 16, the deaths from small-pox in London declined from 164 to 138—the lowest weekly number since January. With the exception of Manchester and Sunderland, the other English towns where it had been prevailing experienced a similar decline. In Berlin, for the week ending July 13, there were registered 725 deaths, of which 117 were due to small-pox and 180 to diarrhea. The sanitary condition of Paris was excellent, and improving weekly, the number of deaths reported for the weeks ending July 7 and 14 having been respectively 803 and 790.

President Bosworth announced that he had been advised that it would be prudent for him to be absent for a time, and it would be necessary for the Board to select a presiding officer in his absence. Commissioner Manierre was unanimously chosen President *pro tem*.

AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL EXHIBITIONS.

The following Exhibitions and Fairs have been announced:

American Institute Fair, opens Sept. 7.
Cincinnati Industrial Exhibition, commences Sept. 6. H. McCallum, Secretary.
Georgia State Agricultural Society, commences at Macon Oct. 23. Dav. W. Lewis, Secretary.
National Swine Exposition, commences at Chicago Sept. 19. Chas. Snead, Joliet, Ill., Secretary.
American Pomological Society, at Richmond, Va., Sept. 6. H. K. Ellyson, Secretary.
Virginia State Agricultural Society's Trial and Exhibition of Plows, at Montgomery, White Sulphur Springs, commences Aug. 15. Machinery and exhibitors or visitors carried at half fare on application to Col. Evans, office A. M. and O. R. R., No. 303 Broadway, New-York.
Mississippi State Agricultural Society's Fair, at Jackson on Oct. 23. J. L. Power, Secretary.
Illinois State Agricultural, at Du Quoin on Sept. 25. A. M. Garland, Secretary, Springfield.
St. Louis Agricultural and Mechanical, Oct. 10. S. O. Kalb, Secretary.

State Fairs are announced as follows:
Central Kentucky, at Danville, Aug. 15.
New-England, at Lowell, Sept. 5.
Kansas Agricultural, at Topeka, Sept. 11.
Iowa, at Cedar Rapids, Sept. 11.
Central Pennsylvania, at Altoona, Sept. 12.
Northern Ohio, Cleveland, Sept. 12.
California, Sacramento, Sept. 18.
Colorado, Denver, Sept. 19.
Central Ohio, Mechanicsburg, Sept. 19.
New-Jersey, Waverly Station, Sept. 19.
Central Iowa, Des Moines, Sept. 19.
Wisconsin, Milwaukee, Sept. 25.
Indianapolis Agricultural and Mechanical, Indianapolis, Sept. 25.
Minnesota, St. Paul, Sept. 26.
Nebraska Brownville, Sept. 26.
New-York, Albany, Oct. 2.
Central Michigan, Lansing, Oct. 3.
Arkansas, Little Rock, Oct. 3.
Alabama, Montgomery, Oct. 16.
Cotton States, Augusta, Ga., Oct. 31.
Louisiana, New-Orleans, Nov. 18.